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ABSTRACT

This guide suggests ways in which community volunteers can assist teachers of ESL or develop independent programs where no formal ones are available. The purpose of the guide is to make opportunities known to the volunteer, to clarify the volunteer-professional relationship, suggest patterns of cooperation, help the professional visualize ways in which the volunteer can assist in a formal program, and provide the volunteer with the basic information concerning second language learning which will make it possible for this person to match enthusiasm with skill. Some charateristics of the professional and the volunteer ESL teacher are described. Ways in which the volunteer can help in conversational exercises and supplementary work are discussed, as are cultural considerations that would help the teacher understand and cope with student problems. Information is provided on the process of second language learning and on different methodologies of language teaching. An introduction to phonology, morphology, syntax, register, vocabulary, and rhetoric is also provided. A glossary of linguistic terms and a bibliography of ESL materials complete the guide. (AM)

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GUIDE FOR THE VOLUNTEER ENGLISH TEACHER

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR FOREIGN STUDENT AFFAIRS

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INTRODUCTION

The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs was formed in 1948 by a group of dedicated pioneers in international education who shared the common concern of assuring that foreign students receive the services they need and have a worthwhile experience while in the United States. NAFSA now is composed of five professional sections: One each for Foreign Student Advisers (CAFSS); Foreign Student Admissions Officers (ADSEC); Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL); volunteer community groups offering services to foreign students (COMSEC), and those sending U.S. students abroad (SECUSSA). Foreign students and students interested in international education also are represented in NAFSA's membership through its Student Caucus.

From the beginning NAFSAns recognized that the ability to understand and speak English is basic to a student's satisfactory sojourn in the U.S. The longer or more sophisticated his academic program, the more the student will need English competence. A functional command of English also encourages foreign student participation in community programs, which can provide an insight into U.S. culture and society that students might not otherwise acquire.

This pamphlet is jointly prepared by representatives of both ATESL and COMSEC to suggest guidelines for ways in which community volunteers can either assist teachers of English as a second language or, if there is no professional teacher of English as a second language available, how volunteers may develop their own programs to help students improve their English competence.

Most universities require foreign students applying for admission to submit evidence of their English proficiency. Such evidence frequently may be demonstrated by scores made on a standardized test administered either through U.S. embassies overseas or the Educational Testing Service. However, this practice may automatically exclude some very able students who may not have had an opportunity to learn sufficient English at home; furthermore, the test score may not accurately reveal linguistic limitations.

The amount of English language training available for foreign students in U.S. institutions varies considerably. Some universities sponsor English language institutes where students may take an intensive course in English consisting of as much as 30 hours of class per week -- thereby rapidly improving their proficiency. Other universities may accept students with less than the desirable level of fluency, but offer a semi-intensive course which can be taken concurrently with a limited academic program. Some institutions may admit students who have less English than necessary but offer no courses in English as a second language. In such cases foreign students are placed in a regular freshman English course or left to their own devices to "pick-up" enough English to carry on their studies. Neither of these alternatives is very effective.

Although teaching English as a second language is a highly specialized field, there is still a wide area in which community volunteers can provide essential services, either by complementing the classes of the professional teacher, or, where no such courses exist, by establishing an independent program. Such a program may be based on a "one-to-one" relationship, as proffered by English in Action, or may offer regular classes to small groups.

Because of a lack of funds, many educational institutions are curtailing their ESL programs, thereby heightening the importance of volunteer efforts in this area. In order to provide adequate ESL training, professional and volunteer teachers of ESL are going to have to investigate and devise successful ways of finding one another and working together to assist the non-native speaker of English. In some instances the survival of services which are the raison d'etre of the professional depend in large part on the availability of the volunteer.

Whether a volunteer program is designed to function independently or in coordination with professionally taught classes, there are certain basic principles of language learning that should prove helpful for volunteers.

THE NEED

The purpose of this guide is to make opportunities known to the volunteer, to clarify the volunteer-professional relationship, suggest patterns of cooperation, help the professional visualize ways in which the volunteer can assist in a formal program, and provide the volunteer with basic information in the area of second language learning which will make it possible for this person to match enthusiasm with the requisite skill for success in this venture.

The role of the volunteer in ESL teaching is one that is often misunderstood by both volunteers and professional ESL teachers. Frequently, a lack of communication between these two groups results in false impressions of one another, lack of coordination of efforts, and often two programs which work at cross purposes. It is highly desirable that the two groups recognize both the limitations of and the possibilities for volunteers in an already established program, and that volunteers be informed of the vast need for their services.

Shortages of trained personnel in other areas -- medicine, science, bilingual education, etc. -- have been at least partially solved through the use of paraprofessionals; the professional in ESL is fortunate to have on call a number of potential paraprofessionals who are willing and eager to offer their services on a voluntary basis.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS OF TEACHERS

Within the groups of professional teachers and volunteer teachers there are indubitably some preconceptions which can interfere with mutual recognition and cooperation. It is essential that members of both groups look beyond preconceived stereotype images to the actual individuals with whom they are to be involved.

The Professional ESL Instructor

The typical professional has had at least some graduate work in ESL and considerable experience in the field; this person may or may not be a linguist. The individual's particular talents and position may be mainly administrative, or in the fields of theory and research. The professional may be involved principally in ESL teacher training or may serve as a full or part time ESL classroom instructor in a college department or in an institute. The one common denominator in this diverse group is knowledge of the methods, materials, and theories of teaching ESL.

The semi-professional has had no professional training or background in the field but has been designated as the ESL instructor by virtue of having junior status in the English department. The area of interest and background of the semi-professional may be widely divergent from ESL, but out of a sense of duty and possibly desperation this person reads up on the subject, searching for the best textbooks and materials.

In most cases, regardless of category, the professional is overburdened. This person spends as much time as possible with the students but realizes how much more time they need. Students are eager for a personal relationship, an opportunity to talk individually with the teacher and discover what he is really like. No matter how well-equipped the language laboratory may be, no amount of enunciating into a microphone will substitute for personal contact. The professional usually does not have time to provide that contact.

Volunteer ESL Teachers

It is difficult to list the qualifications and qualities of a successful ESL teacher. Some helpful characteristics, however, include an interest in and sensitivity to persons of other cultures, a good grasp of standard English, and a willingness to attain a structured approach to teaching. Volunteers may be retired from active employment, employed persons who give an evening or two a week to helping foreign students with their English, or college students with a little time on their hands. The largest number of volunteers, however, are women who have time for volunteer work. These volunteers vary in age, education, degree of involvement, capability, and direction.

While stressing the fact that there is great diversity among volunteers, a hypothetical composite can be presented. The "typical" volunteer ESL teacher would be a woman between 35 and 65 years of age, moderately affluent, not employed outside the home, quite probably the possessor of a bachelor's or master's degree, reasonably poised and articulate, fairly well-traveled, interested in world affairs, and intellectually inclined.

TERRITORIES AND BOUNDARIES

Serious consideration should be given to the fact that few attempts have been made to establish the territories and boundaries within which the professionals and the volunteers should confine their teaching efforts. Where there is little or no communication between volunteer and professional, the volunteer must do whatever seems useful, which can be more detrimental than helpful if the student's formal study of English is in a completely different system from that which the volunteer is using.

There are circumstances in which the volunteer must work alone, where there is no established ESL program and no professional teacher to work with. In those institutions around the country which have from one to several hundred foreign students but no ESL program, the foreign student adviser can serve as a liaison to bring together the volunteer and the foreign student who is struggling with English. In such circumstances there is no question of boundaries and the volunteer must try to cover as much territory as seems feasible.

If the volunteer is working with a professional ESL teacher, the volunteer and professional should mutually agree on the territory the volunteer is expected to cover and the methods which are to be used

WAYS IN WHICH THE VOLUNTEER CAN HELP

Informal Conversational Assistance

Where an intensive program exists and the student receives as many hours of formal instruction as he can assimilate, the professional may feel that the volunteer would be most helpful by simply giving a listening ear. To be most effective the volunteer would permit the student to express himself as freely as possible without interruption for correction, thus enabling him to improve his fluency and establish a personal contact in a way that is impossible in the large classroom.

Volunteer organizations should have enough members to allow small classes of four or five students per volunteer. The volunteer should arrange the group in an informal manner, sitting on sofas, in easy

chairs, on the floor -- whatever the situation seems to call for to relax the students and break the rigid classroom pattern. In such small, relaxed groups students may drop much of the self-consciousness which hampers performance in the academic classroom.

Rather than wait for spur-of-the-moment discussion ideas to burst upon the volunteer or the students, a good plan is to suggest at one meeting of the group what the discussion topic will be for the next, thus enabling the students to begin to assemble their thoughts on the subject. Where the ratio is one volunteer to one student, the same suggestion applies.

Above all, the volunteer should try to become a friend to the student. In many cases the greatest disappointment of a foreign student is that he never makes friends with any Americans while he is in this country, although it is Americans he came here to meet. It is the perceived function of the professional not to be his friend, but rather his friendly English teacher. The student wants to know about American life, customs, philosophy -- a multiplicity of topics -- and the volunteer should attempt to supply that information. The discussion should be two-way, with the student doing some of the listening. The volunteer should offer basically factual information insofar as possible. It is a good idea to avoid personal opinions and feelings -- that is to avoid areas which may embarrass either the student or the volunteer -- unless they are specifically requested. If any opinions are given they should be clearly labeled as such.

A good procedure for the session is for the volunteer to begin with a short statement on one of the above topics and then have the student comment on what he has heard and make comparisons with the situation in his own country or culture. This process helps the student develop his understanding of spoken English, as well as his own fluency, gives him needed and appreciated information, and increases the closeness of the relationship with the volunteer.

Such a volunteer program can broaden the base of the professional intensive program in ways which it could never accomplish by itself.

Supplementary Classroom Work

The professional whose ESL program consists of too few hours per week or too many students per classroom to accomplish his aims may use the volunteer in a completely different way. With too many students and insufficient time, the instructor worries about the lack of opportunity for each student to participate in oral and written exercises. Volunteers can supplement this work in small classes.

In this situation the professional supplies the volunteer with exercises on which the students need work, instructs the volunteer on the techniques of leading such drills, and serves as adviser to the volun-

teer on a continuing basis. The exercises given to the volunteer may be from the text that the students are using in class, from another text with comparable materials, or from the instructor's own creations, whatever suits his situation and inclination.

Often it will be unnecessary for the student to have before him any written material for the drills; the volunteer will have all that is needed. To learn the techniques of teaching the drills the volunteer may sit in on the instructor's class a few times. Another duty which the instructor might share with the volunteer is individual conferences with students on their written work, both exercises and composition.

Each situation is unique and the professional and volunteers involved should agree on how it is to be handled. Some combination of systems may be arranged, either with one volunteer dividing the time between classroom-like exercises and informal discussion groups, or by assigning two volunteers to each group of students, one doing the classroom-like drills and the other leading discussion sessions. The latter arrangement has definite advantages in cases of volunteers who have only one hour a week to give.

Operating Independently

Where There is no Formal ESL Program or Students Are Ineligible

There are circumstances in which an institution offers no ESL courses and its foreign students are thrown into the stream of freshman English along with native speakers. Not only is there no course designed to meet the special needs of foreign students, but there is no one on the faculty who knows what those special needs are. Further, numerous institutions have foreign graduate students whose English is far from adequate even for course work in their field, much less for writing a thesis or dissertation, yet no English training is provided for them.

Situations in which the volunteer would be on her own are not rare. For every institution with a professional ESL program, there are probably in a 150-mile radius at least 20 institutions which have foreign students but no ESL program. It should be feasible in most cases for professionals in each area to organize workshops for interested volunteers, either with the cooperation of NAFSA (or its sections) or under the auspices of the host institution. A small tuition fee can be charged for a non-credit offering, perhaps in the institution's division of Continuing Education or Extension. Financial assistance is available through the NAFSA Field Service Program for regional workshops; information is available from the NAFSA central office.

Since the professional often is more easily identified than the prospective volunteer, it would seem more feasible for the volunteer to seek

out the professional. In most institutions the foreign student adviser can direct the volunteer to the professional ESL instructor.

In each NAFSA region inquiries might be made as to which institutions need volunteer assistance. Usually the regional ATESL representative, who may be contacted through the NAFSA Central Office, can list institutions offering professional programs and provide the names of faculty members responsible for them. Regional COMSEC officers or concerned individuals may need to recruit volunteers in some areas, such as smaller cities and towns where there are no organized volunteer programs.

If priorities are to be established, the case of the student at an institution which offers no ESL courses should probably be placed first. All too often students attending such institutions complete regular English courses, receiving a passing grade which is a gift from the sympathetic instructor who realizes that it is unreasonable to expect the foreign student to accomplish anything significant in a course designed for and in competition with U.S. students. The students are innocently led to believe that they have acquired enough English to progress rapidly in their chosen field. The tragedy comes when they find that their command of English is totally inadequate to this task, most often when they transfer to a four-year institution. As a result they may fail and be forced to drop out, or they may spend four years instead of two in completing degree requirements. Since these students have completed formal English requirements they will not be enrolled in English classes, even if they transfer to institutions offering an ESL program. Graduate students may also find themselves with insufficient knowledge of English and no opportunity to gain it if the university has different English requirements for graduate students than it has for undergraduate students.

The volunteer group should work with the foreign student adviser, if there is one -- otherwise through the dean of students -- to identify any transfer or graduate students who need assistance. Any offer of classes or individual tutoring which the volunteer group chooses to make to these students should be handled through the foreign student adviser.

The students can be helped only if they recognize their need for assistance and wish to take advantage of the opportunity being offered. Like the teachers, the students must be volunteers. They must be made aware of the opportunity, and it must be made attractive to them. Once students have begun the program they must be kept interested to prevent their droping out because of the pressure of their regular course work. Frequently students become enmeshed in a vicious cycle. Because their English is inadequate they must spend more time on their course work, and because the pressure of their course work is so great they do not attend the English sessions, and therefore they do not acquire the English proficiency which they so urgently need.

Wives Programs

There are institutions with complete ESL programs for foreign students but nothing for their wives, who spend lonely days at home, unable to communicate at the supermarket, much less with their neighbors. This is an open field for the volunteer, who will have recourse to profes-

sionals for advice and even instruction; yet the volunteer has the opportunity to devise a new program to suit the special needs of this group.

The volunteer may be as creative and innovative as she wishes. The program may feature classroom-like sessions using materials suggested by a professional, or the wives may meet in the volunteer's home. The volunteer may use the direct method of teaching, perhaps beginning with the "see it, say it" technique of holding up an object or a picture of an object and having the students name the object. If the group is small the volunteer may take them on field trips, to the supermarket, the drug store, the department store, etc., always being sure that the lines of verbal communication are kept operative between the volunteer and the students.

In each of the situations described above, the volunteer's role is a significant one; in each, the volunteer would be performing a unique function or service which should prove extremely rewarding, both to the students and to the volunteers.

WHAT EVERY VOLUNTEER OUGHT TO KNOW

This section provides some information on language teaching which will help the volunteer to understand some of the student's problems and how to cope with them. The volunteer already knows much of the material presented here, although she may be unaware that she knows it. This section should help the volunteer bring much internalized knowledge to the surface where she can recognize it.

Cultural Considerations

It is in the area of cultural acquisition that the volunteer may be of greatest help to the professional in a structured ESL program. Although unable to know a great deal about the culture of all the students with whom she may be working, the volunteer is aware of the culture of this country, and the students need that knowledge.

In conversation groups or individual sessions, the volunteer might introduce an item of American culture such as past and present dating customs, marriage customs, family structure, child rearing, funeral customs, etc. and then ask the students to discuss comparable customs in their countries. This provides a topic on which the students should be able to speak with ease and gives them some much-needed cultural background.

It is easy to assume that one recognizes cultural differences and that these differences are simply an interesting side issue not directly related to language teaching. That assumption is totally false on two counts: First, cultural differences are much more intri-

cate and intense than most laymen and many professionals begin to realize; and second, cultural differences are integral and inseparable concepts in second language learning.

It has long been affirmed that no language can be taught without also teaching the culture of the people who speak the language. Behind this affirmation lies the obvious fact that the student has a different cultural pattern from that which he is being called upon to learn, and the differences in the two patterns will act as a barrier to his real understanding of and ability to use the second language.

The most obvious differences are in vastly divergent cultures. To someone fresh from a Nigerian village, a dictionary definition of the word funeral will not evoke a mental image of a flower-bedecked church, silent, well-dressed attendants, organ music, a black hearse leading a caravan of polished cars directed by booted and helmeted motorcycle policemen to a cemetary where a freshly-dug grave awaits an ornate and expensive coffin. To that person a funeral is a week-long affair marked by all-night vigils, loud verbal expressions of grief, rites in which mourners as well as priests participate, and finally burial in a family compound to keep the departed loved one always near. The concept behind the American word funeral is hidden from the Nigerian villager until he understands what an American funeral is like -- and before that, he must grapple with two concepts of the word death, which underlie the cultural pattern for the funeral.

Differences go beyond word-meanings in determining concepts. There is much that is never uttered at all which contributes to the confusion of the visitor from another country. Each culture contains a non-verbal communication, language which expresses just as much as the verbal language if not more. Gesture is the most easily discernible component of non-verbal communication, and the most obvious example is the wave of the hand in greeting. Such a simple gesture seems universal, yet a vast difference exists in the North American and the South American wave of greeting, depending upon whether the palm of the hand faces outward or inward. The volunteer may wave a friendly greeting to a Chilean who reads it as a summons to report to the volunteer immediately.

The use of space is another non-verbal concept that can create confusion. The American English speaker is likely to consider an area of about three feet around him as his own inalienable territory, and anyone invading that area probably will be regarded with extreme resentment, unless the invader is intimately acceptable in other respects as well. A native speaker of Arabic, on the other hand, prefers to stand on a few inches from anyone to whom he may be talking. Consequently, an American and an Arab may find their conversation to be quite peripatetic, the Arab advancing and the American retreating, each baffled as to the cause.

Obviously, no volunteer can learn all the facets of all the cultures with which she may be faced; neither can any professional. All that is intended here is to arouse a heightened awareness of and sensitivity to cultural differences.

Language is the most important transmitter of culture, and the language teacher is thus a critical element in the communication of cultural information. When the English verb system is taught considerable information is transmitted pertaining to this culture's concepts of time lapse and duration. The very teaching of language structure and vocabulary, therefore, can be an important conscious device for acculturation. Since language and culture are in this sense reciprocal, language teaching can be approached from either end -- overtly as a carrier of culture or covertly through the medium of culture.

One word of caution is necessary: The foreign student is quite likely to be very wary of any effort to "Americanize" him. He is eager to learn about America and Americans, but he probably prefers to maintain his cultural identity. Therefore, it is wise to be objective in giving out information on American culture and to avoid appearing to consider the "American way" superior to all others. The student should be encouraged to share the culture of his own country. Actually, the realization that he is imparting knowledge to the teacher will give him a feeling of confidence which may enhance his fluency.

Language Learning Factors

It should be recognized that learning a first language is a completely different process from learning a second language. While little is known about learning a first language, much is known about second language acquisition. Somehow in our genetic makeup there is a mechanism that, once triggered by a linguistic environment, enables us to learn our native language rather efficiently and completely in a fantastically short time. The second language situation is totally different; there is no relationship whatsoever. First language learning occurs largely at the motor level, and additional languages are acquired largely at the intellectual level; and then there are distinctions that should be made.

First language acquisition may be seen as somewhat similar to what biologists call "path learning" in animals. A mouse in a new environment comes out of its hole a short distance and darts back in again. The next time it advances a bit farther, and darts back in again, continuing this process of adding little increments to the path until it learns the whole path. Once the entire path has been learned the mouse is quite secure on it. This is essentially the way we learn our native language. It is basically a motor skill, a matter of learning and retaining in the medulla oblongata the way the tongue moves, the way in which the glottal pressure and sub-glottal pressure is controlled, and generally how various muscles are controlled to produce specific sounds.

Second language acquisition is totally different because it is learned at the intellectual level and occurs at what could be called "tactic" and "heuristic" levels. The meaning of these two terms can best be

illustrated by analogy. For example, if one is learning to operate a car, he has before him the material with which he is to work -- a set number of devices which he must learn to control in a limited number of ways, with a number of rules to guide him toward that control. One must learn the rules and apply them in the operation of the devices which control the car. The intellectual process of learning to drive a car is quite complex, but it is a process within a closed system with a fixed number of variables.

In language learning this is rather like learning the grammar of the language; one operates in a closed system as there are only so many grammatical possibilities in the language. Once a person learns the basic grammar he can make decisions in the closed system. This typifies the student who has reached the intermediate or lower advanced level in an ESL program, or who is regarded as a fairly fluent non-standard speaker. The student knows the grammar; he can choose words and put them into the right slots, but he does not always make sense because he is imposing over that closed system the grammatical rules of his own language

At the heuristic level, on the other hand, one operates in an open system with an infinite number of variables. The student at this level has mastered the structure of the language to such an extent that he does not have to worry about tactic decisions; he can worry about what he is thinking and put into the tactic decisions almost automatically the relatively complex ideas that he is trying to express. That automatic activity is real language proficiency and it does not occur very often in a second language learned in a formal language situation; yet it is assumed that the student has this ability.

In U.S. educational and social systems more validity is given to heuristic thinking than to tactic thinking, as the difference between the socio-economic status of a medical doctor and that of a taxi driver will testify. However, heuristic thinking is not valued over tactic thinking in all cultures; indeed, the situation is reversed and tactic thinking is more important. This generally occurs in the cultures of developing countries because heuristic thinking is what develops technology and if it is not there the technology has not been developed. Students from these cultures usually have little knowledge of how to operate in an open-ended system with an infinite number of variables. Yet it is assumed that if they are taught the tactics of English they will be able to operate at the heuristic level which will probably be necessary in much of their course work. The fallacy of the assumption is obvious.

The classroom instructor, at least until he reaches the point of teaching rhetoric, must concern himself solely with developing the student's tactic ability. For this reason the volunteer may play an important role in the early stages of a structured ESL program by conducting conversations which will draw out the student's ability to develop ideas orally. The student will continue to operate at the tactic level for some time, but guided conversation can help him develop heuristic thinking which is so important to academic success.

Methodology

The methods used in the classroom to impart the tactics of English are many and varied. Early in the days of World War II the work of the pioneer structural linguists was brought to fruition by the American Council of Learned Societies, which set up the Foreign Area and Language Study Curriculum for the army to teach foreign languages intensively to military personnel. This program used the audiolingual method of teaching, which stresses the development of the spoken language rather than the written language and depends largely on student imitation and repetition of what is modeled for him by the teacher.

The direct method, which depends largely on one-to-one conversation with the teacher correcting the student's errors, was also widely used in an effort to develop oral comprehension and production in the shortest possible time. Anathema was the traditional study of the grammar of the target language (the language to be learned) and translation to and from the target language, the methods used in learning the written language only.

Many theorists felt that learning patterns of sentence structures produced fluency rapidly, while studying rules of grammar and translating from one language to the other only deterred the development of fluency. Materials were developed to provide exercises which would enable the student to learn patterns and develop new utterances to fit the patterns: substitution drills, fill-in-the-slot drills, etc. The revolution in foreign language teaching instigated by the military language programs was adopted by academicians after the war and soon became general in all levels of language instruction.

With the advent of transformational grammar in 1957 new materials were developed in teaching ESL, based on transforming basic, or kernel, sentences into the various syntactic possibilities in the English language. Therefore, available ESL materials may be based on structural, transformational, or even traditional grammar. Some materials also combine one or more of the above methods with the cognitive code-learning theory, based on the traditional method, to give a still more rounded approach.

In the face of all the disagreement among linguistic theorists, what can the ESL teacher, professional or volunteer, do? If he is a pragmatist, he borrows from various systems whatever seems to work in the classroom. And, of course, what works depends on the level or levels of English proficiency of the class, first of all, but also on the constituents of the class (students preparing for college entrance examinations, wives of students who want to be able to function in the community, etc.), the aim (oral fluency, reading comprehension, etc.), number of students, and a few other factors. Each class must be considered separately and ways, means, and materials tailored to that specific class. Students tend to learn what they are taught.

A good set of teaching materials (see bibliography on bibliographies), along with the basic background set forth in this guide and advice and assistance

from professionals, should enable the volunteer to proceed with some degree of confidence with any given class or single student. The key is, quite simply, that what the volunteer does depends on what the student needs.

The three critical variables in language learning are aptitude, attitude, and motivation. These three factors are of vital importance in language teaching. The fact that some students learn a language rapidly while others show little achievement does not necessarily reflect relative degrees of intelligence. The volunteer will find that some students naturally acquire language skills more rapidly than others and will have to be careful not to allow the pace of the class to accommodate only a single level of learning.

Attitude as well as aptitude has much to do with the student's success. Studies have been made which indicate a high correlation between a student's attitude toward the target language and the people who speak it and the degree of success in acquiring the language. The more positively the student feels about the language and its speakers, the more rapidly he learns the language. If the student really does not like language study to begin with and also feels animosity toward the speakers of the language he is required to study, he is very likely to be a slow learner.

Closely related to attitude, but certainly not identical with it, is motivation. Why is the student taking the course? What does he hope to get from it? If he is an engineering student and wants to learn enough English to be able to read technical textbooks in English and to communicate both orally and in writing with his professors, he is quite likely to cease to put forth much effort once he feels that he has accomplished this goal. The student enrolled in a course which does not require an extensive knowledge of English (e.g. engineering), who rarely uses English outside the classroom, and who may feel that once he has earned his degree and returned home English will be of little use to him is likely not to progress as rapidly as the student who is enrolled in a course which is more verbally oriented and who views English as being of value to his future professional success. Both students may be of equal intelligence and aptitude, but the more highly motivated student is almost certain to advance more rapidly in an English class.

The challenge for the teacher, professional or volunteer, is to motivate and improve wherever possible the attitudes of those who put less effort than they should into their study of English. The only general rule which can be applied to all is a very simple one: make it interesting. To make it interesting one must employ a variety of activities: dialogues, grammatical drills, pronunciation and intonation drills, reading comprehension exercises, writing exercises, etc. One activity should not be continued until it bores the student into a hopelessly soporific state.

Elements of Language

Phonology

Phonology is the science of speech sounds. Despite the confusion that can and does arise from standard spelling in English, the language does have a definable and limited set of speech sounds which may be represented by a phonemic alphabet. These sounds are not all common to all languages, and some sounds in other languages are not to be found in English. Any native English speaker who has attempted to say ich as a German says it, perro as a Spaniard says it, or trois as a Frenchman says it will recognize these differences.

When one learns a first language, acquired at the motor level, he learns to produce the sounds of his language; he does not learn to produce sounds outside of that system or even to hear them. A young child who is still learning the sounds of his own language will be able to imitate sounds from any system, as his vocal tract has not yet conformed to one set of sounds. The older one gets the more rigid the motor habits governing the vocal tract become, the vocal tract having habituated itself to the set of sounds of one language. By the time a person reaches adulthood, unless he has had considerable experience with producing sounds outside of those of his own language, he usually encounters much difficulty in producing a sound that his vocal tract has not "learned" at the motor level.

The ear, also, has built-in limitations. When asked to repeat a sound, the foreign student may not even hear the difference in his sound and the native speaker's sound; he may think he is imitating perfectly. In order to help the student produce a difficult sound, the teacher must approach through the intellect what is essentially a motor-level process; she must instruct the student on what to do with the various parts of his tongue, when to voice (vibrate the vocal chords as opposed to allowing air to pass freely), how to shape the lips, etc.

Each sound in English has a description which, theoretically, would enable a linguist to produce the sound even if he had never heard it. For instance, the sound -s- is described as a voiceless apico-alveolar sibilant. But the volunteer teacher has a shortcut to teaching the student to make that sound: she simply makes the sound in her own mind and then tells the student how to make it; for the -s-, she tells the student to curl the tip of his tongue upward slightly behind his teeth, open his lips, and blow our a little air, without voicing.

There also are positional variations of sound; for example, -p- is not always pronounced the same way. The traditional example is the word pop, in which the first -p- is aspirated, followed by the vowel sound, while the final -p- is unreleased. Another variation, or allophone, of the -p- phoneme occurs after the -s- sound, as in spot.

There are many such positional variations in our sound system, though

it is not necessary to trouble the non-native speaker with most of them unless he is aiming for native proficiency.

Because English spelling is irregular, the use of phonemic alphabet is very helpful. Each sound in English is represented by a symbol which can vary only slightly in pronunciation. The International Phonetic Alphabet and the Trager Smith are the two systems most widely used in ESL.* The volunteer could profit from a study of either one of these systems in order to understand better the sound system with which she is working.

It is most important, however, that the volunteer recognize specific problems of students and realize that the Swede is not just being stubborn when he goes on saying "yet" instead of "jet." Examples are abundant from a variety of languages. The classic -l- and -r- problem of the Orientals, for instance, results in sentences such as "I pray with my sister dairy," when the student intends to refer to a form of recreation, not a religious practice, and to time, not milk.

The Oriental simply does not hear the difference in the two sounds and must be told to curve the tip of his tongue upward toward the point at which the gum ridge meets the hard palate, releasing the voiced breath stream between the narrow opening between the tongue-tip and the roof of the mouth, in order to make the -r- sound; and for -l-, to touch the upper gum ridge with the tip of his tongue, leaving the sides of his tongue free in order for the voiced breath stream to spill over the sides of the tongue.

The sound usually written in English with the letters -ng- occurs frequently in that language in the middle (as in singer) or at the end (as in song) of a word, but never at the beginning. In Thai and Chinese, however, the sound often comes at the beginning of a word, and students named Ngo are being called Engo all over this country. The native English speaker adapts the sound to what is familiar to him. Yet he finds it strange that a Spanish-speaker says "eskate" instead of "skate." The sound of -sk- does not occur initially in Spanish, just as the -ng- does not occur initially in English.

Perhaps the sound -th- causes a problem for the greatest number of language backgrounds, and is handled in the most varied ways. A foreign student may "dank" the teacher for her kindness, or "tank" her, or perhaps "sank" her, depending on the closest substitute in the student's own language.

In Brazilian Portuguese the sound of -ch- is often confused with the sound of -t-, before an i sound or in final position, so that a Brazilian student, describing a new teakwood box , might astound his teacher by saying, "It is made of cheek." The -t- sound also exists in his language, so he needs only to be corrected. A student whose language does not include the sound should be helped to produce it by being told to place the tip of his tongue a little farther back than for the

*See the pronunciation key in the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language.

-t-, to release the sound more slowly, and to allow the tongue to move forward.

Both professionals and volunteers must be realistic in the extent to which they hope to teach standard English pronunciation. The student needs to learn to speak understandably -- only this and nothing more. If he is corrected for every wrong turn his tongue makes, he will have little opportunity to develop fluency and soon will cease to care.

What, then, should the teacher correct, and when should she let the mistake go unnoticed? Correct when the error makes a difference in meaning and therefore could lead to misunderstanding. Word pairs that have only one sound difference between them are called minimal pairs, and the students need to learn to distinguish between them. For instance, the Arab, who has a tendency to confuse his -p-'s and -b-'s, might say, "I pet by last dollar." For the Arab, drills with words containing -p- and -b- are very useful. The Spanish (and many others, for that matter) could say, "For me, there is nothing so beautiful as a sheep," and before the teacher can ask if he is majoring in animal husbandry, an additional comment is made: "I don't mean war sheeps, but sailing sheeps." This student needs drills which distinguish between the short -i- and the long -ī-.

If the volunteer is working with a single student, she will soon be able to make a list of the types of pronunciation substitutions the student makes and to concentrate on those. If, however, the volunteer has several students of various language backgrounds, the situation becomes more complex. In this situation the volunteer should use general pronunciation drills devised for foreign students, and there will surely be something there for everybody. Several good pronunciation drill texts are available.*

Probably the most important point to remember in teaching pronunciation is that the student is likely to be quite self-conscious about how he sounds; he needs all the encouragement he can get with any degree of credibility. It is perfectly legitimate to demonstrate to a student the difference between the phoneme he is producing and the one he is expected to produce. However, never, at any time, should a student's pronunciation be ridiculed in any way. He must be made to feel that he is progressing if he is to continue to put forth the effort. Sarcasm as an incentive to learning is an absolute failure, but a little kindness can work wonders. Flattery, however, quickly becomes obvious and may be almost as harmful as sarcasm. Just the right note must be found and played upon.

Learning to produce the individual sounds of a language -- the segmental phonemes -- is not the ultimate achievement in oral production: the student must still learn to put these sounds together with proper juncture, pitch, and stress -- the suprasegmental phonemes.

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*Consult the local professional ESL teacher or the bibliography on bibliographies at the end of this manual.

Juncture, the transition from one segmental phoneme to another, is relatively unimportant in ESL and will not be dealt with here in detail. However, it may be noted that there is considerable disparity in a baseball player and a base ballplayer; and if one travels to London he is sure to have more success in locating a greengrocer than a green grocer. Though the foreign student may misplace juncture, it seldom forms a barrier to understanding. Pitch and stress, on the other hand, have as much to do with oral comprehension as does pronunciation.

Stress, the point of emphasis in a word group, can make a difference in meaning (the noun OBject and the verb obJECT) and frequently obscures meaning. If one asks for a can of ENamel in a hardware store, or a phonOgraph in a music store he is not likely to be understood. These examples indicate the problem of quoting a rule for stress; both are words of three syllables, but one has the stress on the second syllable, the other on the first.

Pitch, the varying levels of the voice in a word group, is equally significant. Several methods have been employed to represent pitch in writing, including musical notation. The simplest and easiest to follow, however, is the linear system, with a line drawn immediately below the word group for normal pitch, farther below for low pitch and above for high pitch:

It's a nice/da\y.

Rising intonation which stays high at the end would indicate a question rather than a statement:

It's a nice/day?

Students find it helpful to be able to see the intonation pattern they are expected to produce, particularly if they wish to practice alone. Several texts using this pattern are available (see bibliography on bibliographies).

A student who uses the pitch or stress of his native language in English should be corrected with some frequency, though probably not with every occurrence. In order to allow him to develop fluency, it is wise to allow him to finish what he has to say, making a note of pronunciation, pitch, and stress, and then to make corrections afterward. The student should be required to repeat the expression until he has said it correctly two or three times. A method called the backward buildup technique has been quite successful in teaching pitch or stress. If the student says:

There/are\too/ma\ny/peop\le/in\this/room.

he is almost certainly following the intonation pattern of his own language. The teacher should repeat the entire sentence for him with regular English intonation, then begin with the last word or two, being careful to place the pitch where it would fall in the sentence in which it belongs. After the student has mastered the intonation

at the end of the sentence, the teacher should back up a little more, then more, until the student has mastered the entire sentence. This method is frequently used in teaching dialogues.

While pitch and stress often change the meaning or intent of a word group, a word in itself does not change meaning with pitch, as it does in tone languages, such as Thai. In English a book is a book, regardless of pitch, but in a tone language the same word takes on a different lexical meaning according to whether it is at low, medium, or high pitch. Nevertheless, much may be changed by the intonation pattern in English. A young lady invited to a special event by a young man might reply:

You want me to go with/you? (I'm immensely flattered.)

or she might reply:

You want/me\to go with/you? (Such insolence!)

Morphology

The morpheme is the smallest element of a language that carries meaning, regardless of the number of syllables in the morpheme. The word indentions contains four morphemes: the prefix in-, the root -dent-, the derivational suffix -tion, and the inflectional suffix -s for "plural."

However, the word dog is a single-syllable morpheme in itself, while animal is a three-syllable morpheme. Dog and animal, because they can occur in isolation, are called free morphemes, while prefixes, which cannot occur in isolation, are called bound morphemes. The derivational suffixes are those which indicate the part of speech (-ly, adverb; -tion, noun). The inflectional suffixes may indicate any of the following: Noun plural (-s), past tense verb (-ed), comparative adjective (-er), and superlative adjective (-est), among others.

An understanding of morphemes and the relationship between them is essential to the comprehension of English. The native speaker has the ability to arrange and join morphemes and to place words in meaningful order without necessarily knowing how to describe the rules of morphology or syntax; he simply learned the language in an acceptable order.

For the non-native speaker the problem is much greater. His own language is not likely to be put together in the same way as English, and he must therefore learn a whole new system. In German, for instance, two nouns may be joined together with no preposition where English would use a phrase: description of the world would be translated as weltbeschreibung; welt, world, and beschreibung, description. Spanish, on the other hand, uses a phrase to indicate a possessive, never (-'s). The boy's book in Spanish becomes El libro del muchacho, or the book of the boy, involving morphemic and syntactic differences.

The following section can be used by the volunteer in teaching more structured English.

Syntax

Syntax is the arrangement of words in a sentence, clause, or phrase. Certain patterns have been recognized in English. The most basic pattern, the noun phrase functioning as subject followed by a verb phrase functioning as predicate, is one best known to foreign students. Their problems develop when they must go into deviations from, or transformations of, this basic pattern to indicate changes in tense, negation, possession, passive voice, etc.

Most native speakers are not aware of the complicated structure of the English sentence or of the strict rules which govern word order; they know only what "sounds right" and what fails to make sense. If the sentence

Boys will play games from dawn to dusk.

were re-ordered to read:

To dusk games will boys dawn play from.

the native speaker would very probably be baffled as to the meaning. The foreign student, however, does not have the built-in radar system to detect what is out of place. He must learn the order. This does not mean that English language learning should begin with study of the rules of grammar -- on the contrary. The student needs to learn patterns which he can manipulate to create new meanings. If he learns the pattern

He likes oranges,

he may learn to substitute for the first noun phrase to produce, for example,

Bill likes oranges.

He may substitute for the verb instead of the subject to produce

He eats oranges,

or he may substitute for the noun following the verb to produce

He likes apples.

Eventually the student can make the substitution in all positions in the pattern to produce

Bill eats apples,

which certainly is different in meaning from

He likes oranges,

but the pattern remains the same. Once the student has learned this pattern he can generate a surprisingly large number of sentences, depending on how far his vocabulary will take him. As he learns more and more transformations of this pattern, he is able to generate more and more sentences, expressing himself more freely with each new pattern mastered.

For example, he learns the negative transformation

He doesn't like oranges,

and can go on to produce

Bill doesn't eat apples,

or even

The man doesn't ride bicycles.

Or he learns the question transformation

Doesn't he like oranges?

and in a similar manner can generate

Doesn't the man ride bicycles?

If the student begins by studying rules, his mind will be constantly groping for the rule to fit what he wants to say, not for the expression itself, and he can become hopelessly enmeshed in grammatical terms and rule formulae. Later, when the student has developed some ability to use the language, he can benefit from the study of the rules, or description, of the language in order to better understand and produce the more complex structures.

The volunteer, who knows the right pattern whether or not she knows the rule to describe it, should be concerned with guiding the student into the right patterns and helping him to generate new expressions through the patterns he has learned. A judicious choice of exercise materials can do much to help the volunteer decide what to do and how to do it.

To effectively guide the student into the right patterns, the volunteer should be aware of the various constructions of phrases. The noun phrase in transformational grammar may consist of a proper noun, a personal pronoun, an indefinite pronoun, a determiner plus a noun, or a noun substitute. A determiner is a word which marks (determines) the presence of common nouns.

Articles and the possessives my, your, our, their are always determiners

and always precede the noun, but there are other words that may serve either as noun substitutes or as determiners: demonstratives (this, that, etc.); other possessives (his, its, Bill's, etc.); numbers; and quantifiers (few, more, some, any, etc.).

Where determiners are used with adjectives, the adjective always immediately precedes the noun;

some of the older students.

Learning to arrange determiners is very difficult for the non-native speaker. He must learn which are the pre-determiners, that appear before the article, and which are the post-determiners, that appear after the article. In the example above it can be seen that quantifiers may sometimes be followed by of in which instance they precede the article. However, without of those quantifiers which appear with an article follow it:

a few exercises.

A number determiner may also follow a demonstrative or a possessive:

Bill's first flight.

Those four dolls.

There is a rule of arrangement: a determiner consists of an optional pre-determiner followed by an article, a demonstrative, or a possessive, which may be followed by a post-determiner. In the phrase

some of his first words

some of is the pre-determiner, his the possessive, and first the post-determiner.

The verb phrase in transformational grammar consists of an auxiliary followed by either a form of the verb to be or a verbal. When the auxiliary is followed by a form of to be, the verb is followed by a noun phrase, an adjective, or an adverb phrase; where the auxiliary is followed by a verbal, the sentence may need nothing further for its completion. First it must be understood that the familiar terms auxiliary and verbal take on new meaning in transformational grammar. An auxiliary consists of tense, whether the tense is expressed in an inflected morpheme (such as -ed for past tense) or in a separate word (such as have or can).

Tense is not to be confused with time. There are two basic tenses, common and past. The common tense, though synonymous with present tense, does not always express present time:

I go to the library to study. (Habitually, but right now I'm in class.)

He leaves for New York next week.

The past tense covers all other tenses, with time a variable. In the present tense are included the present tense modals: can, may, shall, will, must; in the past tense are included the past tense modals: could, might, should, would. The verb to be must have a separate category as it does not operate like any other verb. All other verbs except modals are called verbals. A verbal may be a single word, such as go or sang, or it may consist of a phrase:

Boys play.

Boys will play games from dawn to dusk.

Aspect is the category of grammar which denotes primarily the relation of action to the passage of time, particularly in reference to duration. It is represented by the verbs have and be used with a main verb. Have used as part of the auxiliary must always be followed by the past participle form of the verb (the symbol -en is used to designate the past participle morpheme, even when the word is spelled differently, as in baked or gone). Be used as part of the auxiliary must be followed by the -ing form of the next word. Therefore, to express duration of an action, one of these forms must be used.

He has ridden the bus every day this week.

I am writing my term paper tonight.

For the non-native speaker, aspect is one of the most difficult concepts to grasp. It should perhaps be reiterated that tense and time are two different things, and aspect may represent more than one time concept. For instance, the second sentence above could be spoken over the telephone, at a time when the activity of the moment is not writing, but talking. It could, on the other hand, be spoken while the pen is actually being pushed across the page. It could also be spoken in mid-afternoon to explain why the speaker cannot accept an invitation to a movie for that evening. What aspect does indicate, as previously stated, is the relation of the action to the passage of time, with emphasis on the extended duration of the action.

While English is not so highly inflected as some other languages, such as Latin and German, it does present a problem to the non-native speaker in the case of pronouns. "This is she's book" is a common type of error for the foreign student, particularly if he was taught the pronouns together and cannot pull the right one from the pile. He should be given exercises which help him to get the pronoun into a pattern.

Substitution drills work well here, such as:

This is her book.

This is her pen.

This is her lunch.

When this pattern becomes a part of the student, he is ready to go on to another one.

Literal translations from one language to another are virtually impossible because of differing morphology and syntax. For example, the French sentence "Il nous les donne" translates literally into English as "He us them gives." It should be clear then, that the foreign student should be discouraged from thinking in his own language and translating into English. He must learn English through building acceptable patterns and think in English if he is ever to make it a second language. *This should not be interpreted as meaning that he should never be exposed to the rule behind the pattern; only that the pattern should come first, the rule as an explication where it seems helpful.*

Register

Another element of language to consider in ESL is register, the variation in language which is determined by the situation. Not all languages -- or cultures -- have the varying degrees of formality that exist in English. The university president meeting with the Board of Regents does not speak in the same way that he does on a fishing trip with an old friend. There is a difference in selection of words, of structure, of sentence length, and of tone.

The foreign student is likely to speak formally at all times rather than being too casual in a formal situation. He knows there is a difference; it is clearly seen in written language and conversations in which he gets involved; yet he does not know exactly where the difference lies or how to adjust to the situation. For many non-native speakers it is not easy to learn to use contractions in speech, so that their conversations sound stilted.

Advanced foreign students who have recently arrived in this country but who have had several years of English study are most commonly troubled with this problem. On the other hand, students who have been exposed to English in the various media may use an abundance of colloquial English not suitable for formal situations.

The professional teacher usually works with formal language in reading material and essay writing, and with informal in both oral and written exercises. There are drills on the use of contractions, and students are usually required to use contractions in all exercises. Although these drills use less formal language than that of the written work, they are not always entirely colloquial in tone. The volunteer would do well to select a register for the normal oral interchange with the students, and introduce other registers with explanations of the proper time and place for each. Students like to have puzzling slang expressions explained to them, particularly those gleaned from television, movies, campus conversations, etc.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary can be taught only in context. Word lists which give a definition are not helpful in developing a working vocabulary, since

it is very difficult to fit a word into a context when it has not been learned in one. Furthermore, most words have more than one meaning, and the wrong meaning may be applied to the context being used.

Words in context are usually taught from reading material, which sometimes enables students to understand the meaning of a new word from the context without looking it up. Glossaries accompanying reading material should explain the use of the word in the context in which it is given. Usually reading material is followed by drills requiring students to use the word in the same meaning as in the context.

In strictly oral programs, word meanings should be discussed when a question arises, and again the meaning given should be that of the context in which it was spoken. Going into other meanings of words, unless clarification is necessary, is likely to be more detrimental than helpful.

Rhetoric

The volunteer is not too likely to be called upon to teach writing, at least beyond the stage of sentence production. However, those who do face this problem should be aware that English rhetoric rules are not common to all languages, as the thought patterns of our culture are not common to those of all other cultures. The most common rhetoric pattern in English is the statement of the theme in an opening paragraph, a separate paragraph to discuss each facet of the theme, and a concluding paragraph to tie it all together. The development is in a straight line, quite direct, and lends itself readily to the formal outline so often required with a composition.

A student whose culture (and therefore language) approaches an idea through circumlocutions of one kind or another and follows an intricate trail to a revealed conclusion does not adapt readily to the English system. He must be taught through example and observation of good form. A good method is to give the student short examples to read and then explicate the organization pattern. A series of examples carefully diagnosed will point the way for him.

Exercises in summary writing and reduction of essays to outline form should help the student understand English rhetoric. He should then be taught step by step to develop his own ideas into a linear organizational pattern easily understood by the American reader. This may be done by first teaching him to write a thesis sentence, then a thesis paragraph, then paragraphs on various features of the thesis, and finally the concluding paragraph. Not only will this method enable the student to produce comprehensible essays for compositions, but also to write essay type examinations and outside reports in other courses.

CONCLUSION

The foregoing information is supplied as background to help the volunteer to understand some problems of language learning and to point out ways in which she can be more effective in assisting foreign students. Little more has been done here than to point out to the volunteers areas of teaching English as a second language which invite deeper investigation.

The volunteer must be cautioned against expecting too much in too short a time. Language acquisition is a lengthy process. The time required to learn a language has been estimated at between 1,000 and 1,800 hours, depending upon aptitude, attitude and motivation. In ESL institutes students frequently put in thirty hours per week, or 180 hours in a six-week period. A student beginning at the lowest level usually needs six such six-week periods to reach the point of being able to operate adequately in an academic situation. The more intensive the study, of course, the shorter the time span in learning the language.

The volunteer who is assisting or supplementing a structured course of several hours per week will see more rapid improvement than the person who is trying to do it all alone. Whenever possible, students who are limited to the volunteer program should be given at least four hours per week, on two separate occasions. Two volunteers could share the responsibility, one working on pronunciation and intonation and the other on pattern drills, for example. Or, the two could simply proceed through their materials, one taking up where the other leaves off. This method allows greater variety within each two-hour period and helps keep students interested.

It is hoped that this guide will open doors and channels of communication between volunteers and professionals as well as begin a new era of increased activity and expanded service in ESL all over the country, both in existing academic programs and in those instances in which volunteers are struggling alone to assist the foreign student.

An annotated, classified bibliography is included for volunteers who wish to do further reading and studying on the subject. It is by no means comprehensive and should not be taken as such. The multiplicity of textbooks available precludes the possibility of listing all of them here and it would be an injustice to other authors if only a few were stipulated. The reader is directed to the list of annotated bibliographies which have sufficient information to lead the teacher to the texts most suitable for each class. Again, as has been stressed throughout this Guide, volunteers working with an established ESL program should consult the professional ESL teacher, who may also be of assistance in suggesting reading materials. Additional information on materials and services for volunteers is available from the NAFSA Central Office.

GLOSSARY

Acculturation: the modification of one culture by contact with another.

Affix: a letter or syllable which is added either before the base word (prefix) or after the base word (suffix); derivational morphemes may be followed by other morphemes but inflectional morphemes may not. Prefixes are always derivational.

Allophone: a variant sound of a phoneme which does not distinguish meaning, such as the "p" sound in pot and in trap door.

Aspirated: produced with a puff of air after a consonant.

Cognitive Code Learning Theory: the system of learning through acquisition of the rules, often by inductive methods.

Drills: oral exercises intended to teach a specific point of usage, such as tense.

Glottal Pressure: pressure applied in the larynx to open or close the glottis in producing sounds.

Heuristic: referring to the thought processes which can develop along empirical lines through free association allowing conclusions to be reached without specific guidelines.

Juncture: the way in which sounds are joined together.

Lexical: relating to the vocabulary of a language.

Linguist: a person who is knowledgeable in analyzing and classifying the facts of language. The term is never used in this text in the popular sense of one who speaks several languages.

Medulla Oblongata: nervous tissue at the base of the brain which controls, among other things, respiration and circulation.

Morpheme: the smallest element that carries meaning in a language.

Morphology: the structure and form of words.

Palate: the roof of the mouth consisting of the hard palate at the center and the soft palate at the back.

Phoneme: 1) segmental -- the smallest unit of sound which distinguishes meaning.
2) suprasegmental -- pitch, stress, and juncture in the production of a chain of segmental phonemes.

Rhetoric: methods of expressing thought, including such elements as content, structure, syntheses, and style.

Standard and Non-Standard Speaker: one who uses the form of a language which is common to the largest number of its educated speakers is a standard speaker; one who uses a deviant form of the language, such as a dialect, is a non-standard speaker.

Structural Linguistics: a system of language description with particular emphasis on form and distribution, especially in the spoken, rather than the written language.

Syntax: the meaningful order of words in phrases and sentences.

Tactic: referring to the effecting of maneuvers; a type of thought process which operates within a closed system according to given guidelines.

Trager-Smith Alphabet: a system of phonetic symbols making certain changes from the International Phonetic Alphabet.

Transformational Grammar: a system based on the theory that a language has only a few basic sentence types (kernel sentences) from which all other sentences are generated through the use of transformations, such as the transformation from statement to question form.

Voiced: produced with the vocal bands vibrating.

Voiceless: produced with the glottis open wide enough to allow the air to pass through unobstructed.

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